CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE PEACHTREE ROAD IMPROVEMENT PROJECT, SPARTANBURG COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of an approximately 1,000 foot corridor in the northern portion of Spartanburg County, South Carolina. The work, conducted for Mr. Chris Potter of HDR Engineering, Inc., is meant to assist the client in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract is to be used by the South Carolina Department of Transportation for the relocation of an existing culvert. The survey area is situated about 10 miles north of the city of Spartanburg on S-55 (Peachtree Road). The area consists of disturbed red clay with waist-high undergrowth and a small area of dense hardwoods and scrub vegetation.

This survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites which may be in the project area. The proposed undertaking will require clearing, grubbing, grading, and paving of the new alignment along with the construction and placement of the culvert. There will likely be short-term construction impacts, including increased noise and dust levels, and increased construction related traffic. The area is still being developed, so only a few properties will be in direct view of these construction activities.

Consultation with the S.C. Department of Archives and History revealed no properties in or near the project area that have been determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology identified no archaeological sites within a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE).

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the proposed corridor. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. In the wetland areas, no shovel tests were performed, but a pedestrian survey was still completed. A total of 10 shovel tests were excavated along the corridor.

As a result of these investigations no archaeological sites were found. The topography is sloping toward the creek, so habitation would not have been likely in this area.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. The area is being developed, so no historic structures are within view of the proposed undertaking.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Chris Potter of HDR Engineering, Inc. The work was conducted to assist the South Carolina Department of Transportation comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of an approximately 1,000 foot corridor proposed to be used for the relocation of S-55 (Peachtree Road), located in the north portion of Spartanburg County (Figure 1). The work will also require the construction of a culvert for a small creek crossing. The project is situated mostly in a disturbed area of red clay, but also contains areas of wetlands and pines and hardwoods.

The corridor, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used for the relocation of an existing highway and culvert. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing, grubbing, grading, and paving as well as the actual construction of the culvert, will cause severe damage to the ground surface and any archaeological resources which may be present in the survey area.

Construction and maintenance of the facility may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. The project will not directly effect any historic structures (since none are located within view of the corridor), nor will the completed culvert detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, since it replaces an existing crossing. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile radius around the proposed survey tract.

This study, however, does **not** consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development, including road widening projects, of this portion of Spartanburg County.

We were requested by Mr. Chris Potter of HDR Engineering, Inc. to provide a proposal for the survey on April 8, 2002. A proposal was supplied on April 9 with revised agreements provided on May 30 and June 14. Permission to proceed with the project was given shortly thereafter.

These investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work, no sites were found in the 0.5 mile APE.

The South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. No NRHP sites were found within 0.5 mile of the survey, however no comprehensive county survey has been performed for Spartanburg County.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on July 10 by Mr. Tom Covington and Ms. Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley and revealed no archaeological sites.

The architectural survey of the APE, designed to identify any structures over 50 years in age which retain their integrity revealed no such structures.

Report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina from July 12-15. The only photographic materials associated with this project are color prints, which are not archival. The negatives and prints for these photographs are retained by Chicora Foundation.

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Spartanburg County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

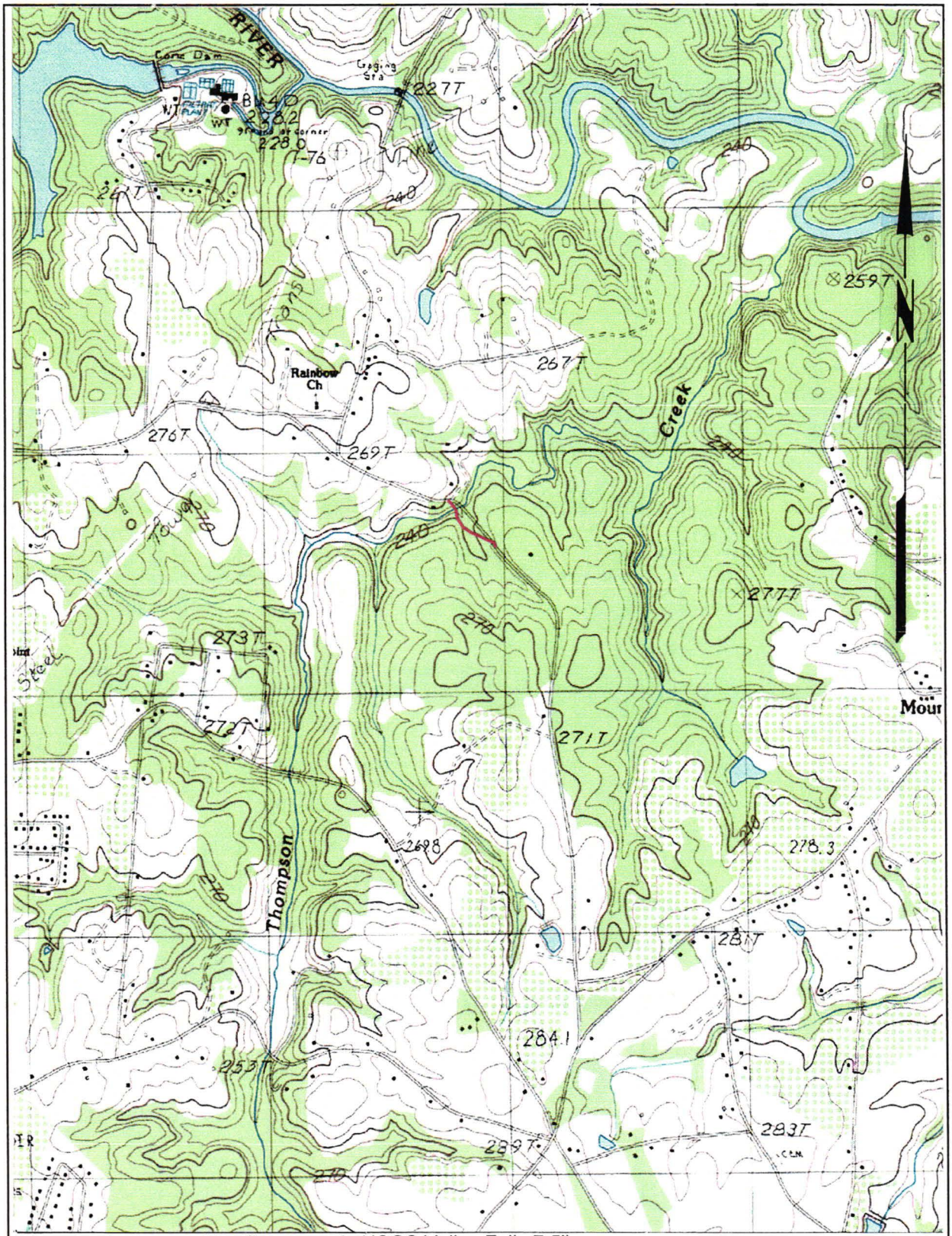

Figure 2. Project corridor (basemap is USGS Valley Falls 7.5').

0 0.5 1

SCALE IN MILES

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

Spartanburg County is bounded to the north by Polk and Rutherford Counties, North Carolina, to the west by Greenville County, to the south by Laurens County, and to the east by Cherokee and Union Counties.

The county is mostly situated on the Piedmont Plateau, but its northwestern corner is in the foothills of the Blue Ridge Mountains. The general slope of the topography is southeastward, which is the general direction of the main drainageways. The land ranges from nearly level to steep, but most areas are gently sloping to moderately steep (Camp 1968).

The rivers and streams form a dendritic drainage pattern. Excluding a small area in the northeast corner, the main streams flow southeast. In the northeastern portion of the county the streams flow northeast into the Broad River. The major streams that drain the county are the Pacolet, Tyger, and Enoree Rivers. Some of their major tributaries include Page, Hoston, Buck, Abner, Dutchman, and Cedar Shoals Creeks. The survey area crosses Thompson Creek which is also called Big Shoally Creek. This creek joins with Pacolet River to the north. Mills, in the early nineteenth century, noted that the streams "are of very peculiar character in point of location, all running parallel, and some of them, in several places, not a mile apart" (Mills 1972).

Geology and Soils

The geology of the county is characterized by thirteen geological formations. These formations are made up of alluvium, fine grain rocks, medium grain rocks, fine grain to coarse grain rocks, and coarse grain rocks. Alluvium consists of materials recently deposited on flood plains. The fine grain rocks are quartzite, diabase, quartz, monzonite, and sericite schist. The medium grain rocks are granite, biotite gneiss, and migmatite. The fine grain to coarse grain rocks are biotite schist, Yorkville quartz monzonite, and hornblende schist. The coarse grained rocks are horneblende gneiss, coarse grain granite, and muscovite pegmatite dikes (Camp 1968).

The project area is characterized by only one soil series, Davidson clay loams. These soils have an Ap horizon of dusky-red (10R3/3) loam to a depth of 0.4 foot over a dusky-red (10R3/4) clay to a depth of 1.7 foot. This soil has been severely eroded.

The soils in Spartanburg County are

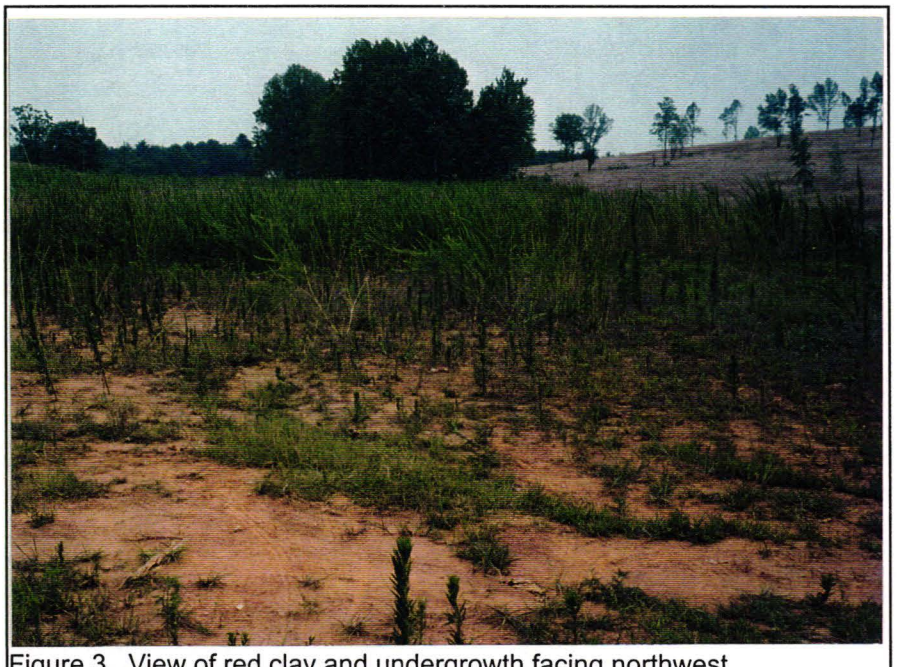

Figure 3. View of red clay and undergrowth facing northwest.


Figure 4. View of creek and hardwoods facing southeast.

classified by Trimble (1974) as having lost between 0.6 to 0.8 foot of erosion, primarily as a result of late nineteenth and early twentieth century agricultural practices. Lowry (1934) found this section of Spartanburg characterized by moderate sheet erosion with occasional gullies. The 1934 *Erosion Map of the State of South Carolina* (Figure 5) shows most of Spartanburg County as having 25-75% of the surface gone and having some occasional gullies.

Climate

The climate of Spartanburg County is mild, and rainfall is well distributed throughout the year. Day-to-day weather is controlled mostly by the movement of pressure systems across the county, but complete changes of air masses are relatively few in summer, since masses of tropical maritime air persists for long periods. In an average year approximately 76 days have one-tenth of an inch or more of rain, about 33 have one-half an inch or more, and about 14 have one inch or more (Camp 1968). The average yearly rainfall is 45.8 inches.

The climate is favorable for the principal crops: peaches, cotton, corn, small grain, soybeans, hay, and vegetables. The average growing season is about 227 days. Typically in the summer, temperatures higher than 90 degrees are recorded on an average of 50 days. Winter time temperatures fall

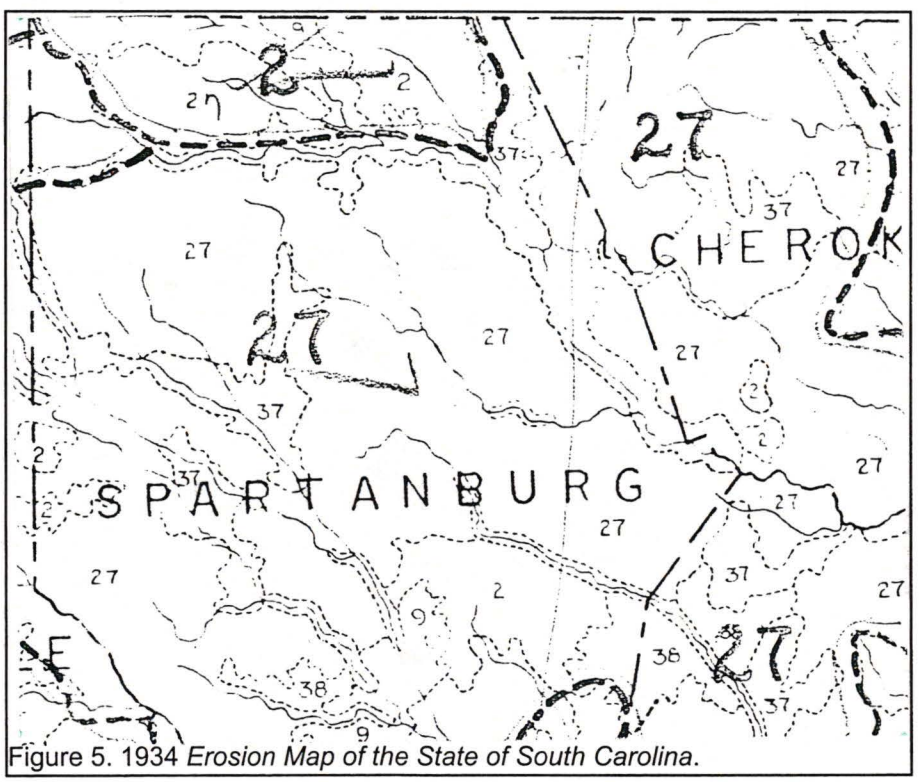

Figure 5. 1934 *Erosion Map of the State of South Carolina.*

at or below freezing about 60 days of the year (Camp 1968).

Floristics

Within the Piedmont, forest populations currently consist of large percentages of loblolly and short leaf pines, although during the prehistoric period it appears to have been characterized by mixed pines and hardwoods. Currently, the vegetation in the survey area are hardwoods, although the majority of the corridor was in an open area of waist high brush.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

Previous Research

The majority of the investigations in Spartanburg County were for the S.C. Department of Highways and Public Transportation, but as of 1991, relatively few sites had been identified (Derting et al. 1991). Some of the other projects include a data recovery of an Archaic period site and a historic farmstead (Finch Farm site) (Joseph et al. 1991), The Williams Place farmstead (Resnick 1988), and a sewer line project (Adams and Trinkley 1992).

Prehistoric Overview

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.[1] Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie 1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b:Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity. What is clear is that points are found fairly far removed from the origin of the raw material. Charles and Michie suggest that this may "imply a geographically extensive settlement system" (Charles and Michie 1992:247).

Although data are sparse, one of the more attractive theories that explains the widespread distribution of Paleoindian sites is the model tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaption" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps reflecting movement either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled

[1] While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

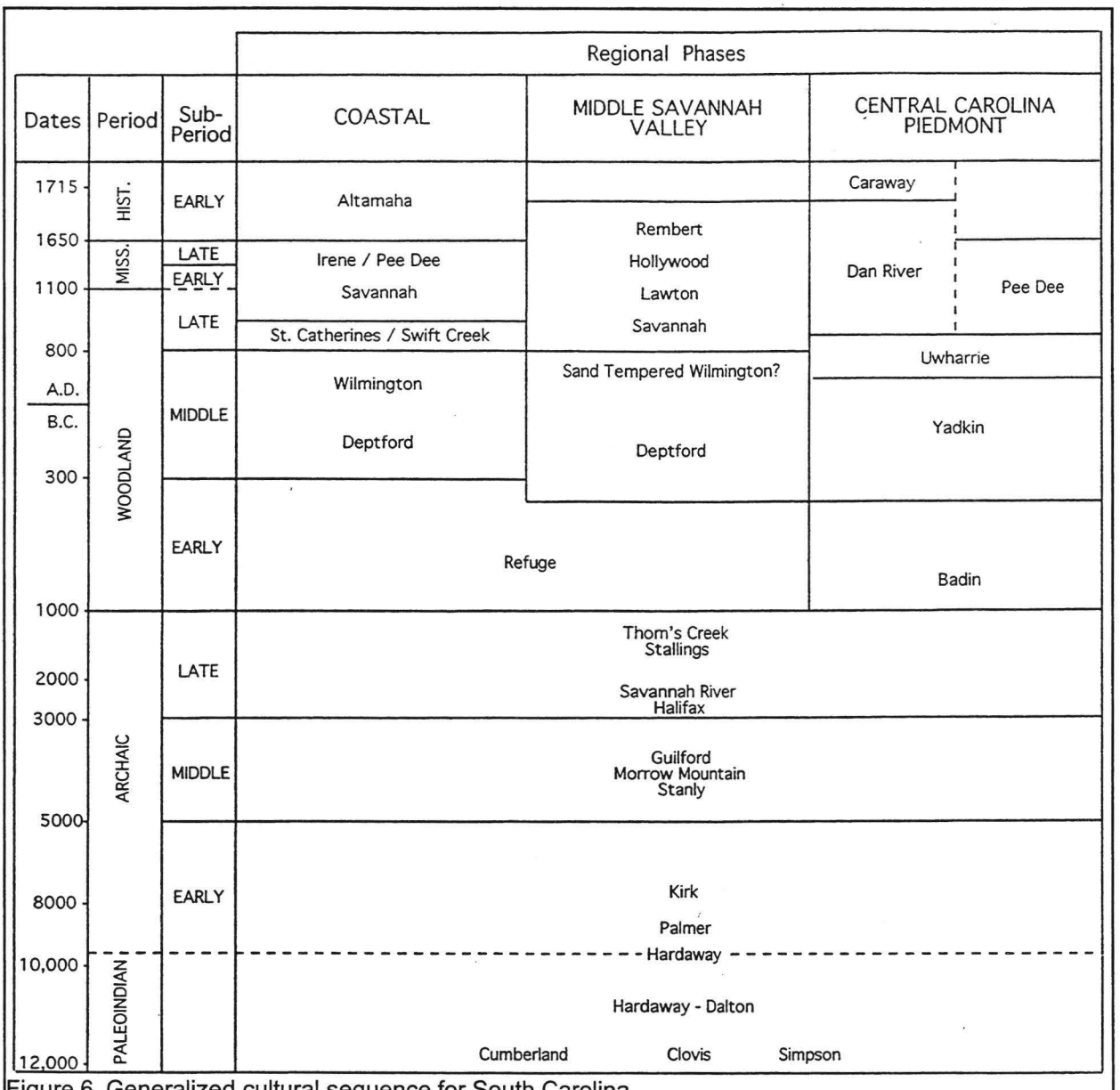

Figure 6. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of

new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[2], does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites which can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts — these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials which has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Woodland artifacts is the Morrow Mountain

[2] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

Stemmed projectile point. Originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily on the size of the blade and the stem. Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups which would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site (38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina (Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one which includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations which focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

> the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle

Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with, the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine which reduced the oak-hickory nut masts which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sandhills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from

Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery which is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.[3] This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. In the Piedmont and even into the Sand Hills, the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least 1650 B.P. coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin in South Carolina has been best explored by research at 38SU83 in Sumter County (Blanton et al. 1986) and at 38FL249 in Florence County (Trinkley et al. 1993)

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas

[3] The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the south-central Piedmont.

there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

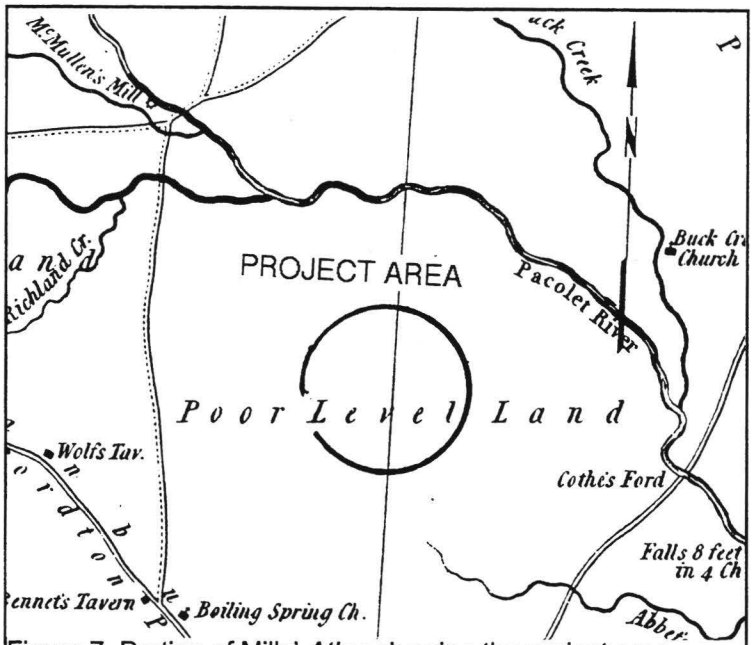

Figure 7. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area.

Historic Overview

Historical accounts of the territory encompassing the Spartanburg County area begin with the DeSoto expedition in 1540 (Swanton 1946). This territory was recognized by the Indians and the early settlers to be the hunting grounds of the Lower Cherokee (Logan 1859). In these early years, the principal source of interaction between the European settlers and the Cherokee involved a loosely organized trading network.

After the establishment of South Carolina in 1670, organization and delineation into more manageable territorial units began. In 1785, the Proprietors sectioned the new province into four counties. Present Spartanburg County was included in the largest of these, Cravn County, which remained as Indian land until 1755 (Kennedy 1940). A further refinement of boundaries in 1769 saw the creation of the Ninety Six District. It was not until 1785 that Spartanburg County was created by an act of the South Carolina legislature which divided the district into six units of approximately 45 square miles each.

An early sparse influx of settlers from the north was composed mainly of cattlemen and Indian traders. These semi-permanent settlements were concentrated along the streams and rivers where land was productive and easily cleared. After the initial settlements of the 1750s the white population did not increase until 1761, with the expulsion of the Native American population at the end of the Cherokee War (Latimer 1924). The second wave of settlement was spearheaded by farmers from the northern colonies of North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. The new farmers developed a self-sufficient system by planting flax, tobacco, corn, wheat, and oats and raising hogs and cattle for their own use (Latimer 1924).

At the outset of the Revolutionary War, the population of the Carolina backcountry was quite diverse in its ethnic and religious background. These differences seemed to localize the hostilities with loyalists and revels living side by side. In 1775, in an attempt to consolidate the revolutionary forces, William Drayton and William Tennent, were sent into the Piedmont territories. With Drayton's and Tennent's assistance, Col. James Thomas raised a local force named the Spartan Regiment, or Spartan Rifles. Numerous battles were fought in this area, most notably, the battles of Cowpens and King's Mountain (Kennedy 1940).

In 1785 the state legislature formed Spartanburg County. Current county boundaries remained unchanged with the exception of the northeast corner, which in 1897, was subdivided to form Cherokee County (Latimer 1974). The first

Federal Census in 1790 reported a population of 8,800 in the county, 806 (9.2%) of this total being slaves. Land used in the eighteenth century for cattle raising was converted in the early nineteenth century to crops with 90% of the population farming largely on the subsistence level (Racine 1980).

The 1830s were a period of emerging fluorescence for this area. Spartanburg village was founded in 1831, making it the only town of its size and organization in the backcountry (Racine 1980). The invention of the cotton gin in the late eighteenth century, improved roads, and limitless water power, provided for the beginnings of a cotton manufacture in 1830 with the first cotton mills appearing on the Tyger River as early as 1816-1818 (Kennedy 1940). The first iron works in South Carolina had been erected in Spartanburg County in 1773, and by the early 1830s this area was referred to as "The Old Iron District". Mills Atlas of 1825 (Figure 7) shows no settlements in the project area. By 1856 Spartanburg had four of the eight important furnaces in the State, which played a key role in supplying the Confederacy during the Civil War (Kennedy 1940).

The period directly preceding the Civil War (1840s-1850s) was one of growth and progress and the town of Spartanburg emerged as a substantial rural community. Two important factors served as catalysts for this rapid development: the arrival of the railroad and the sudden growth of cotton manufacture.

The effects of the Civil War on Spartanburg County were traumatic in a cultural, social, and personal aspect, yet highly beneficial in the continuing economic growth of the area. The absence of any military engagements in the county, the pressing demand for various resources and material goods, coupled with the recently installed railway system, made Spartanburg an important production and distribution point for the warring South. The need for war products such as weapons, ammunition, tools, and other equipment greatly increased the market for iron – bringing the industry out of its slump and into the position of a leading industry in the South Carolina Piedmont area.

After the Civil War, a steady rise in industrial and commercial development brought many changes stimulating rapid growth in the economy and population. Although Spartanburg County suffered immeasurable monetary loss in its investments into Confederate currency, a general prosperity seemed to have returned as soon as the late 1860s with trading reopening in the spring of 1867 (Kennedy 1940).

The iron industry was one of the war's casualties. The loss of highly skilled slaves, the worthless Confederate bonds, the diminishing supply of charcoal, the disappearance of an iron market, the aging machinery, and the newly emerging competition all served to destroy the remaining iron foundries.

Eventually, cotton manufacturing entirely replaced the iron industry and in many instances, actual sites were transformed into cotton mills (Kennedy 1940). In the 1870s and 1880s the manufacture of cotton developed rapidly. The post-Civil War economy's need for a cash crop was readily met by intensive "one-crop" cotton farming. By 1909 there were nine mills in close proximity equipped with huses and stores for the workers (Racine 1980).

The number of large farms appeared to decrease dramatically as they were "divided" into smaller units to be cultivated by increasing numbers of sharecroppers and tenants. The problems of erosion and loss of fertility continued to plague farmers, though the practices of fertilizing and terracing being implemented in the latter nineteenth century were beginning to help (Mangum 1904). As new methods of farm financing in the form of extended credit emerged, a class antagonism arose between town merchants and farmets. By 1885 this discontent on the part of the farming community fostered the establishment of farmers' organizations such as the State Board of Agriculture and the Farmers' Alliance (Kennedy 1940), which seemed to more efficiently direct the political powers of the agricultural community.

An 1887 Map of Spartanburg County by McCollough shows very few sites around the project area. Only one name, E Walls, is in the vicinity of the project.

Spartanburg County was hit hard by the 1929 depression; all six banks failed, many businesses closed, and animosities resurface between town and country, management and worker, and landowner and tenant. Agricultural lands were in poor condition. Much of the topsoil had washed away and though the addition of fertilizers helped, continued erosional practices offset their benefits. In 1933 the Soil Erosion Service of the U.S. Department of the Interior (now Soil Conservation Service) chose Spartanburg as a pilot erosion prevention project. The techniques of careful terracing, crop rotation and diversification, and the planting of trees, grasses, and kudzu introduced through this program may well have prevented Spartanburg County from becoming a wasteland. The Farm Security Administration also attempted to tackle the problem of the drifting tenant farmer by providing opportunities to become land owners (Kennedy 1940).

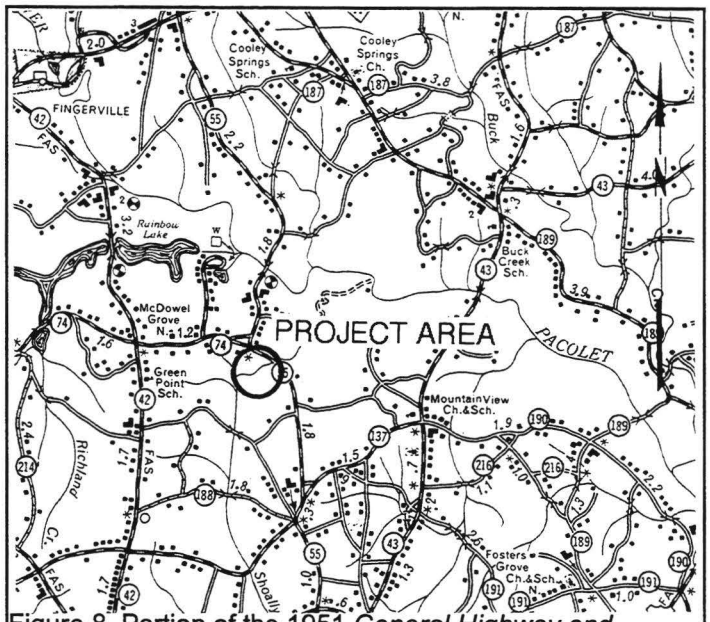

Figure 8. Portion of the 1951 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Spartanburg County* showing the project area.

Despite all of its textile wealth and commercial activity, Spartanburg County remained a predominantly rural area with agriculture (90% of the area is farmland) as its leading pursuit (Kennedy 1940). As the World War II economy served to break the remaining bonds of the earlier depression, Spartanburg County expanded its textile production, and added foreign industry and the cultivation of peaches as a cash crop to its economy. The agricultural economy continues with little change into the modern period. The sharecropper and tenant land use systems continue. The increased complexity of agriculture machinery and technique which has drastically reduced the need for labor has once more shifted the power over cultivation to the hands of the owner. This reflection of the original antebellum system is defined by Prunty (1955) as a "neo-plantation" land use pattern.

The 1951 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Spartanburg County* shows no structures in the site area. The structures shown across the street are no longer standing due to the development of several new neighborhoods.

Although the soils within the survey area are well drained, the right-of-way occurs on a fairly steep ridge slope immediately adjacent to the creek. Other areas were low and wet. Consequently, it was believed that most of the project area had a relatively low potential for containing archaeological sites.

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along the middle line of the culvert.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators. Sites which appeared to be eligible or potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places would be recorded using a Garmin GPS 12XL rover which tracks up to twelve satellites.

A total of 10 shovel tests were excavated along the culvert line. The soil resembled the Davidson series which has an Ap horizon of dusky-red (10R3/3) loam to a depth of 0.4 foot over a dusky-red (10R3/4) clay to a depth of 1.7 foot.

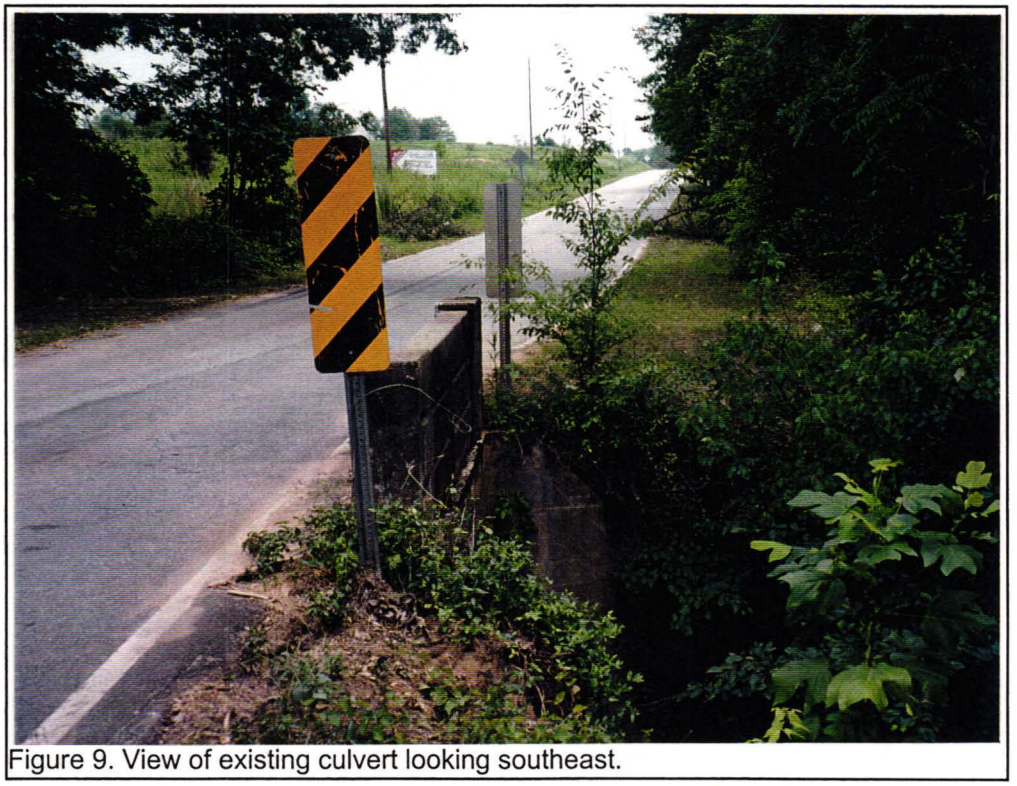

Figure 9. View of existing culvert looking southeast.

Sites would be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead agency in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and

History.

Analysis of collections would follow professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the 1,000 foot survey corridor failed to identify any archaeological remains. This is most likely the result of intensive disturbance of the soil due to intensive erosion and the lack of any flat areas which would support habitation.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which "have kept their integrity" (Anonymous n.d.:4) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation and Findings

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials — the physical items used on and in the property — are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

The survey failed to identify any structures that were visible from the survey area. Within the 0.5 mile APE there are no structures which contain enough integrity to be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of approximately 1,000 feet of land for the relocation of a culvert. The project area is located in the northern portion of Spartanburg County. This work, conducted for HDR Engineering, Inc., examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project area and is intended to assist the S.C. Department of Transportation in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation no archaeological sites were uncovered. This is most likely due to the low and sloping topography.

A survey of historic sites was conducted within a 0.5 mile APE. No structures were found withing the APE which retained enough integrity to warrant a National Register of Historic Places nomination.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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